

# Year 4 — Numerical Linear Algebra

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These notes are not endorsed by the lecturers, and I have modified them (often significantly) after lectures. They are nowhere near accurate representations of what was actually lectured, and in particular, all errors are almost surely mine (especially the typos!).

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# 1 Introduction

The goal of this course is to solve and understand problems using (usually non-square) matrices. The course will cover,

1. SVD. Singular Value Decomposition, see Linear Algebra (Year 2).  $A = U\Sigma V^T$ .
2. Linear systems  $Ax = b$  and eigenvalue problems  $Ax = \lambda x$ . Least square problems,  $\min_x \|Ax - b\|_2$ .

There are going to be three classes of approaches,

- Direct Methods, classical approach. Not useful for very big matrices.
- Iterative solvers, work even if matrix sizes are larger.
- Randomised Algorithms, use some sense of randomisation in order to get an algorithm that works with high probability better than direct for very large matrices.

## 1.1 Why do we care?

When we want to solve a non-linear equation a linear system pops out. Motivation: minimising a function,  $\min_x f(x)$  where  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , where we let  $n$  be large. One powerful way to find a minimum is to find a stationary point. So we find,

$$\nabla f = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n} \end{pmatrix} = 0$$

if we have a nice (convex) function, then if we have a stationary point, we have a minimiser. This boils down to, letting  $F = \nabla f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ . We need to find zeros of this non-linear problem. Hence we now have a root-finding problem, and so we can use Newton's Method.

$$x_{\text{new}} = x_{\text{old}} - \mathcal{J}^{-1}F(x_{\text{old}})$$

and we see,

$$\mathcal{J}_{ij} = \frac{\partial F_i}{\partial x_j}$$

and then this is the hessian of  $f$ . This is then a linear system,

$$\mathcal{J}\Delta x = F(x_{\text{old}}).$$

**NB! Here  $A^* = \bar{A}$  (instead of  $A^* = \bar{A}^T$ )** We are going to stay under real matrices because there are only two cases where the difference matters. Further,  $m \geq n$  for most matrices in this course. For orthonormal matrices,

$$A^T A = I_n \quad A A^T \neq I_m$$

## 1.2 Norms

We need norms to quantify how big matrices are. These help us when approximating matrices. Given some  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , we have

$$\|x\|_2 = \sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2 + \cdots + x_n^2}$$

and 1-norm,

$$\|x\|_1 = |x_1| + \cdots + |x_n|$$

and the p-norm,

$$\|x\|_p = (|x_1|^p + \cdots + |x_p|^p)^{\frac{1}{p}}$$

and finally the  $\infty$ -norm,

$$\|x\|_\infty = \max_i |x_i|$$

**Definition 1.1** (Norm). A norm satisfies three axioms,

- $\|\alpha x\| = |\alpha| \|x\|$
- $\|x\| \geq 0$  and  $\|x\| = 0 \iff x = 0$
- $\|x + y\| \leq \|x\| + \|y\|$

**Lemma 1.2** (Holder's Inequality). For  $p > q$ ,

$$\|x\|_p \leq \|x\|_q$$

**Definition 1.3** (Unitarily Invariant). If  $A$  is orthonormal, then  $\|Ax\|_2 = \|x\|_2$ .

**Lemma 1.4** (Cauchy-Schwartz). For any  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,

$$|x^T y| \leq \|x\|_2 \|y\|_2$$

*Proof.* For any scalar  $c$ ,  $\|x - cy\|_2^2 = \|x\|_2^2 - 2cc^T y + \|y\|_2^2$ . Now we complete the square and we get,

$$\begin{aligned} \|x - cy\|_2^2 &= \|x\|_2^2 - 2cc^T y + \|y\|_2^2 \\ &= \|y\|_2^2 \left( c - \frac{x^T y}{\|y\|_2} \right)^2 + \|x\|_2^2 - \frac{(x^T y)^2}{\|y\|_2^2} \end{aligned}$$

and so we now minimise by letting  $c = \frac{x^T y}{\|y\|_2^2}$  and so we get Cauchy Schwartz. □

Now for matrix norms. We have the  $p$ -norm,

$$\|A\|_p = \sup_{x \neq 0} \frac{\|Ax\|_p}{\|x\|_p} = \max_{\|x\|_p=1} \frac{\|Ax\|_p}{\|x\|_p}.$$

The most important case is when  $p = 2$ , this is the spectrum norm. This is,

$$\|A\|_2 = \max_{\|x\|_2=1} \|Ax\|_2$$

**Exercise.** Show,

$$\|A\|_1 = \text{maximum column sum}$$

$$\|A\|_\infty = \text{maximum row sum}$$

**Definition 1.5** (Frobenius Norm).

$$\|A\|_F = \sqrt{\sum_i \sum_j |A_{ij}|^2} = \sqrt{\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A}} = \sqrt{\text{tr}(\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A})}$$

where

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} A_{11} \\ \vdots \\ A_{1n} \\ A_{21} \dots \end{pmatrix}$$

**Definition 1.6** (Trace Norm).

$$\|A\|_* = \sum_{i=1}^{\min(m,n)} \sigma_i(A)$$

For most  $p$ -norms,

$$\|AB\|_p \leq \|A\|_p \|B\|_p$$

and for the Frobenius norm,

$$\begin{aligned} \|AB\|_F &\leq \|A\|_F \|B\|_F \\ &\leq \|A\|_2 \|B\|_F \end{aligned}$$

this is the subordinate property. Where this goes wrong is,

$$\|A\|_\infty = \max_{i,j} |A_{ij}|$$

Here is a result on subspaces,

**Lemma 1.7.**  $\mathcal{S}_1 = \text{span}(V_1)$  and  $\mathcal{S}_2 = \text{span}(V_2)$  where  $V_1 \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d_1}$  and  $V_2 \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d_2}$ , with  $d_1 + d_2 > n$ . Then  $\exists x \in 0 \in \mathcal{S}_1 \cap \mathcal{S}_2$ .

## 2 SVD

We already know of the symmetric eigenvalue decomposition  $A = V\Lambda^T V$  for a symmetric  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  where  $V^T V = I_n$  and  $\Lambda = \text{diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n)$ . Now we learn about the Singular Value Decomposition (SVD). This is for any  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  for  $m \geq n$ . Here  $U^T U = V^T V = I_n$ ,  $\Sigma = \text{diag}(\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_n)$  where  $\sigma_1 \geq \sigma_2 \geq \dots \geq \sigma_n \geq 0$ . We now want to prove this always exists,

*Proof.* Take some  $A^T A$  (Gram Matrix) symmetric positive semi-definite. That is, all the eigenvalues are nonnegative. We then have an eigenvalue decomposition,

$$A^T A = V \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \lambda_n \end{pmatrix} V^T$$

Now we let  $B = AV$ . Then,

$$\begin{aligned} B^T B &= V^T A^T A V \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \lambda_n \end{pmatrix} = \Sigma^2 \end{aligned}$$

Suppose  $\lambda_n > 0$ . Then let,

$$U = B \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1^{-\frac{1}{2}} & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \lambda_n^{-\frac{1}{2}} \end{pmatrix}$$

and  $U^T U = \Sigma^{-1} B^T B \Sigma^{-1} = I_n$ . Now  $A = BV^T$  and  $B = U\Sigma$  and so  $A = U\Sigma V^T$ . Now consider when  $\lambda_{r+1} = 0$ . We have,

$$\Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & & & & \\ & \ddots & & & \\ & & \lambda_r & & \\ & & & 0 & \\ & & & & \ddots \\ & & & & & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

and now we can do something sensible. We do,

$$(U_r \ 0) = B \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1^{-\frac{1}{2}} & & & & \\ & \ddots & & & \\ & & \lambda_r^{-\frac{1}{2}} & & \\ & & & 1 & \\ & & & & \ddots \\ & & & & & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

instead of 0's. We still have  $A = BV^T$ , but,

$$U = BV^T = (U_r \ 0) \begin{pmatrix} \Sigma_r & \\ & I \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} V_r^T \\ V_{\perp}^T \end{pmatrix} = U \Sigma_r V^T$$

This is the economical SVD. □

We also have the full SVD where,  $A = \begin{pmatrix} U & U_\perp \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \Sigma \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} V^T$  where  $U \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$  orthogonal.

From the SVD we get,

- rank  $r$  of  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ , number of nonzero singular values  $\sigma_i(A)$ . We can always write  $A = \sum_{i=1}^{\text{rank}(A)} \sigma_i u_i v_i^T$ ,
- Column Space, span of  $U = [u_1, \dots, u_r]$ ,
- row space, row span of  $v_1^T, \dots, v_r^T$ ,
- null space,  $v_{r+1}, \dots, v_n$ .

We note that the SVD can be written in the form of an outer product,  $A = U \Sigma V^T = \sum_{i=1}^k \sigma_i U_i V_i^T$ . We also note that  $Av_i = \sigma_i u_i$ . Let's prove this,

$$\begin{aligned} Av_i &= \left( \sum_{j=0}^n \sigma_j u_j v_j^T \right) v_i \\ &= \sigma_i u_i \end{aligned}$$

and similarly,  $u_i^T A = \sigma_i v_i^T$ . Further we can show if  $A = U \Sigma V^T$  we can say,

$$A^T A = V \Sigma^2 V^T \quad (1)$$

or

$$AA^T = U \Sigma^2 U^T \quad (2)$$

Further for any 1 such that  $A = \tilde{U} \Sigma V^T$  and  $A = U \Sigma \tilde{V}^T$  then **some result**.

We call a triplet a singular triple if  $Av_i = \sigma_i u_i$  and  $u_i^T A = \sigma_i v_i^T$  both hold. We now ask whether the SVD is unique. We can see,

$$\begin{aligned} A &= U \Sigma V^T \\ &= U S S^{-1} \Sigma S^{-1} V^T \\ &= (US)(S \Sigma S)(SV^T) \end{aligned}$$

where we just let  $S$  be diagonal with  $\pm 1$ . We see that the grouped terms retain the structure that we need to have a new SVD. Further this SVD is different, but  $\Sigma$  is the same ( $S = S^{-1}$  and  $\Sigma$  is diagonal). When  $\sigma_i = \sigma_j$ , we have larger degree of freedom, i.e.  $\sigma_1 = \sigma_2$ . We can write the first two diagonals as  $\sigma_1 Q Q^T$ . We then have,

$$A = U \begin{pmatrix} Q & \\ & I_{n-2} \end{pmatrix} \Sigma \begin{pmatrix} Q^T & \\ & I_{n-2} \end{pmatrix} V^T$$

If  $A$  is orthogonal, we can say the following are SVD's of  $A$ ,

$$A = A I I = I I A = (AQ) I Q^T.$$

**Lemma 2.1.**

$$\|A\|_2 = \sigma_1(A)$$

*Proof.* Use SVD,

$$\begin{aligned} \|Ax\|_2 &= \|U \Sigma V^T x\|_2 \\ &= \|\Sigma V^T x\|_2 \\ &= \|\Sigma y\|_2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n \sigma_i^2 y_i^2} \\
&\leq \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n \sigma_1^2 y_i^2} = \sigma_1 \|y\|_2 = \sigma_1
\end{aligned}$$

□

## 2.1 Applications

### 2.1.1 Low-rank approximations

Given some  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ , we want to find some sort of  $A_r$  such that  $A \approx A_r = U_r \Sigma_r V_r^T$ . You may ask why?

- Let  $A$  be stupidly large, then this saves storage.
- Matrix multiplication is of order  $\mathcal{O}(mn)$ , but in terms of this approximation we have something of the order of  $\mathcal{O}((m+n)r)$ , which is a massive saving.

**Low-rank Matrices** When talking about low-rank matrices, we say some  $\text{rank}(B) \leq r$ . If this is true we can write it as,  $B = xy^T$ . Let's prove this,

*Proof.* We know  $B = U\Sigma V^T$ , then we can truncate  $\Sigma = \text{diag}(\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_r)$  and then let  $U_r \Sigma = X$  and  $Y = V$ . Conversely, if  $B = XY^T$ , then  $B = U_X \Sigma_X V_X^T$  then  $Y = U_Y \Sigma_Y V_Y^T$ , then we look at  $XY^T = U_X \Sigma_X V_X^T V_Y \Sigma_Y U_Y^T$ . Now we SVD AGAIN!!!!  $V = U_X \tilde{U} \tilde{\Sigma} \tilde{V}^T U_Y^T$  AND AGAIN!  $\tilde{U} \tilde{\Sigma} \tilde{V}^T$ . Then we can say that  $V$  can have at most  $r$  positive singular values. □

Now we want to find  $B$  such that  $\text{rank}(B) \leq r$ . So we want to minimise  $\|A - B\|_2$  given  $A$ . We see  $\|A - B\|_2 \leq \|A - C\|_2$  for all  $\text{rank } C \leq r$ . That is, we want to solve,

$$A = U\Sigma V^T = \sum_{n=1}^n s_i u_i v_i$$

and then truncating  $B$ ,

$$B = U_r \Sigma_r V_r^T = \sum_{i=1}^r \sigma_i u_i v_i^T$$

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